

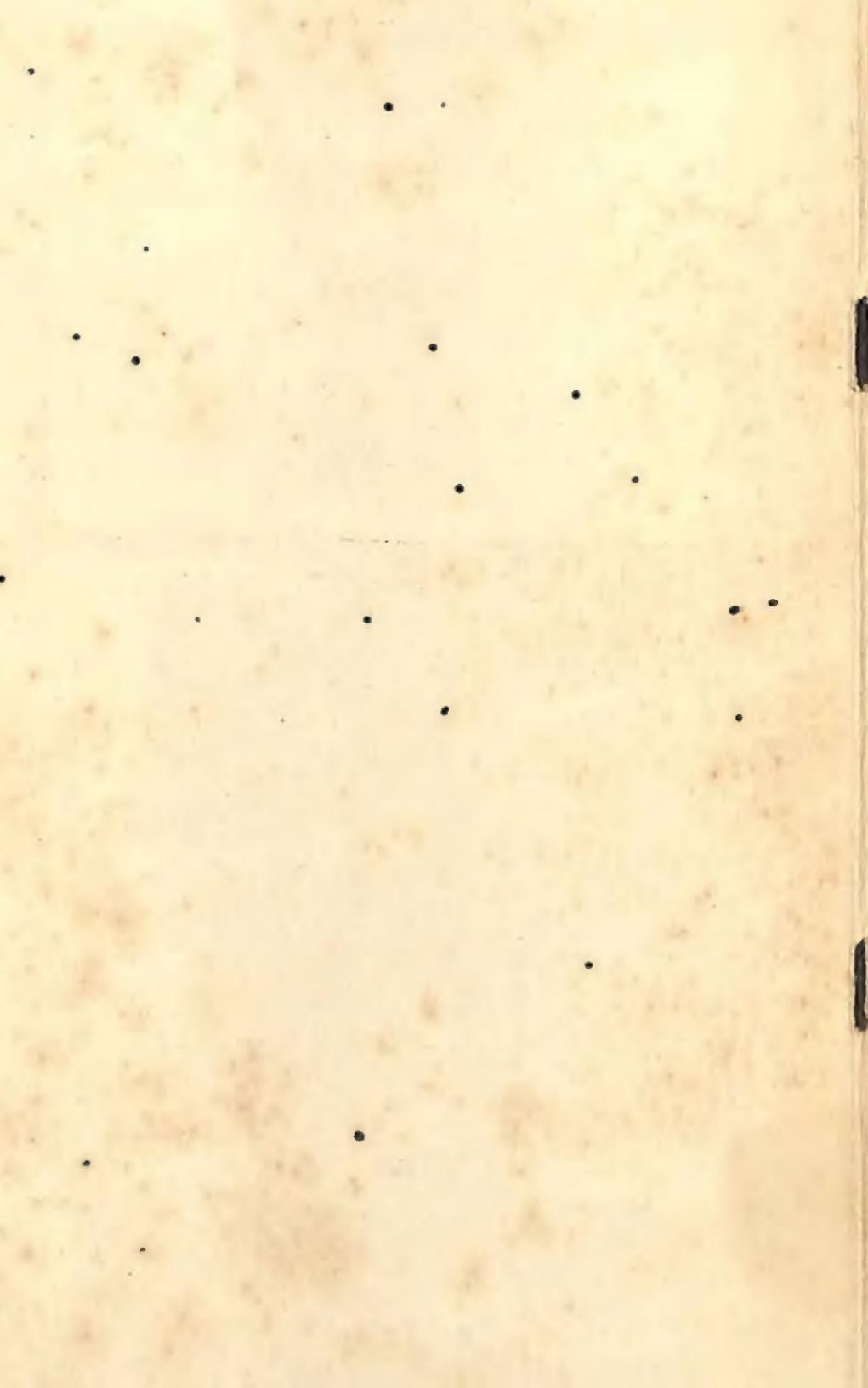
THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

TOWARDS WORLD UNDERSTANDING

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AND
TRAINING OF TEACHERS

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UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL,
SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION
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INTRODUCTION



Unesco has been experimenting in a special form of international conference, to which it has given the name of "seminar". At these seminars educators coming from many countries and selected by their governments are brought together to make an intensive study of specific educational problems; to use the "study group" method on an international level; to prepare materials for national and international use; to draw up plans for action in the home countries of the participants, and to live for a period in an international community.

The most important feature of each seminar is the small informal study group in which information is exchanged, ideas and methods are discussed, and solutions to problems are suggested. Before the seminar closes, each group is usually asked to draw up a report giving some indication of the lines on which the group has been thinking, and listing any recommendations which it wishes to make. This document contains the reports of the three groups which were formed at the Seminar on the Education and Training of Teachers, held at Ashridge, near Berkhamsted, Hertfordshire, in England, from 15 July to 25 August 1948.

THE PARTICIPANTS

Forty-seven persons* from 22 different countries took part in this Seminar. Twenty-four of them—slightly more than half—were directly connected with institutions where teachers are prepared; twelve were heads of such institutions, and twelve were staff members. Eight participants were representatives of Ministries of Education

* Australia (1 participant); Austria (1); Belgium (1); Burma (1); Canada (3); Czechoslovakia (1); Egypt (1); France (5); Hungary (1); India (2); Italy (2); Luxemburg (1); Netherlands (2); New Zealand (1); Norway (2); Poland (2); Switzerland (2); Syria (1); Turkey (2); Union of South Africa (2); United Kingdom (2 from England, and 1 each from Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, Nigeria and the Gold Coast — a total of 7); and United States of America (6).



and other government departments with educational interests. There were two workers in the field of educational research, one university dean in charge of research and teaching, a director of a Bureau of Psychology, and an executive officer of an association particularly concerned with the education of teachers in service. One secondary school principal and five secondary school teachers were present. Finally, there were four post-graduate students with backgrounds of experience in primary school teaching (1), secondary school teaching (2), and in teacher training (1). The participants were specialists in a wide variety of academic subjects. These included education, psychology, divinity, and philosophy; history, geography, and civics; literature, classical languages and modern languages; mathematics and chemistry; music and domestic economy. Ages varied from 27 to 60, with the great majority between 35 and 50. There were thirty-five men among the participants and twelve women. The Director of the Seminar was Dr. Karl W. Bigelow, Professor of Education at Teachers' College, Columbia University, U. S. A. The information given in this Introduction has been taken from the report on the Seminar which he prepared for the Director-General of Unesco*.

THE STUDY GROUPS

Unesco had suggested the topics for the three study groups: "Educating Teachers to Understand Child Growth and Development", "Educating Teachers for Social Understanding", and "Preparing Teachers for their Role as Potential Contributors to Better International Understanding".

The members were assigned to these groups as far as possible in accordance with their own wishes. It was understood, however, that all assignments were provisional for the first two or three days; after that, it was expected that members would remain in the same group throughout the Seminar; and as a matter of fact, only one request for a change was made later, after the Seminar had been at work for more than two weeks.

The three groups met every morning of the week, except on Saturday and Sunday. During its first two meetings each group considered the implications of its topic and formulated tentative plans of operation. It was decided to begin by hearing a series of statements

* Bigelow, Karl W., *Unesco Seminar on the Education and Training of Teachers, 1948* (Sem. I/INF/12).

by the members on those practices in their own countries which related to the topic of the study group.

The group on child growth and development had certain advantages over the others. Its subject was the most compact and the best understood; it had the fewest members, and it was able to operate almost entirely in a single language. After the national reports, the group heard summaries on the growth and development of children at three different age levels, and then discussed a series of special problems proposed by interested group members.

The group on international understanding had the broadest and vaguest topic of all, and was, moreover, under the necessity of having continuous interpretation from French into English, and vice versa.

The subjects considered by the groups were not mutually exclusive, and each group discussed from its own point of view some of the problems which were also considered by the other two. This proved an advantage in that it made contact between the groups, and between individual members of different groups, of great value. It has meant, however, that all three reports have covered some of the same ground. So that they may be read with interest by those who did not themselves take part in the Seminar, care has been taken to avoid unnecessary repetition. This has required some editing of the reports of Groups I and III, and the presentation of Group II's report in a summarized form.

THE LECTURES

The programme of the Seminar included a series of thirteen lectures, held late in the afternoon or in the evening. Four, including those given at the outset by the Director-General of Unesco, and the Assistant Director-General for Education, were concerned with Unesco and various aspects of its programme. Two were general introductions to British education, and seven dealt with topics of special interest to the Seminar.

These lectures have not been printed in this pamphlet, with the exception of Miss Gardner's talk on "Child Growth and Development as a Subject of Study by Teachers", which appears after the report of Group I, as it was found by the members of the group to be particularly helpful and is closely related to the subject of that report.

AN APPRECIATION

It is hoped that educationists, both teachers and administrators, will

find these reports useful and stimulating. But the success of a seminar should never be judged solely by reports of this kind. The following description of the Seminar, written by the Editor of the London *Times* "Educational Supplement", sums up briefly some of the important results which were achieved, but which the reports of the groups can only indicate.

This week has seen the conclusion of a very happy and, in the best sense, successful six-week seminar on the education and training of teachers organized by Unesco and held at Ashridge College, Hertfordshire.

In this pleasant and dignified setting some seventy people (the number varied, for there were a few late-comers, and some outside lecturers and guests joined the discussions for a day or two) sat down with three main objectives in view: to get to know and appreciate each other; to pool and compare their knowledge of teacher education and training; and to make as many constructive and helpful suggestions as possible. The first could be (and was) pursued at all times throughout the long days; the others were mainly matters for the study groups.

. . . Much of the first half of the seminar had to be spent in factual exposition. This was not all lost time. It gave members much information in more colourful fashion than most summary documents do, and it enabled them to study each other, to appreciate national ways of presentation, even on occasion to be tolerant of national idiosyncrasies. Perhaps the most valuable lesson learned during this period was that, even when using the same tongue, people of different nationalities talk different languages.

The factual ground cleared, discussion proceeded apace in that spirit of freedom, candour and cordiality for which the director had pleaded. It was an exhilarating and vastly encouraging experience to sit as observer with these groups towards the end of what must have been an extremely arduous period of concerted study and to feel the warm friendliness and the comradeship atmosphere which inhibited no outspokenness and encouraged no evasion, even for courtesy's sake. If wars begin in the hearts of men, surely here was illustration that peace begins thus also?

And that, I believe, must be reckoned the outstanding achievement of this seminar. "The educative influence of the members upon each other", as one participant described it. "Intangible benefits", said another. But there were tangible, and even visible benefits as well. Members who arrived shy, diffident, constrained, matured into the best of good companions and first rate contributors to discussion. Many learned more in six weeks than they could have done in six years at home.

. . . Without doubt many seeds were sown that will produce rich harvests of knowledge, understanding, and good will. Certainly they strengthened faith, increased hope, and renewed ideals, and this without evasion of practical problems, difficulties, and dangers.

EDUCATING TEACHERS TO UNDERSTAND CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

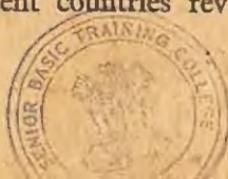
BY
GROUP I

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Mr. A. CLIFF LEWIS (Canada)
Mr. U Ba LWIN (Burma)
Mr. John O'MEARA (Union of South Africa)
Mr. Frantisek SOSNA (Czechoslovakia)
Mr. Karl ZAPPE (Austria)
Professor C. R. MCRAE (Australia)
(Chairman of the Group)

I. TEACHING ABOUT CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

To the members of Group I it seemed appropriate to begin with a consideration of what is actually being done in teacher-training institutions to educate students to understand child growth and development. Group members therefore prepared brief reports on the situation in their own countries, and submitted them to the Group for comments and questions.

The reports on a dozen different countries revealed interesting



variations in courses, methods and emphasis. Even more striking, however, were the many resemblances; in particular, there was agreement on the need for a greater swing away from an abstract, bookish type of child psychology which can be of no great help in the education of children.

It was clear from the reports that the importance of teaching about child growth and development is generally recognized, and that, in each of the countries reported on, teachers in training receive some instruction on the subject.

THE NEED FOR IMPROVED METHODS

During the discussions which followed the presentation of reports there was considerable criticism of the methods used in teaching about child growth and development. It was agreed that in most institutions it is still being taught in too academic a manner, and that the knowledge acquired is inert rather than functional. A mere textbook acquaintance with facts about child development is not enough.

It is quite valuable that a prospective teacher should be able, in an examination, to state some relevant facts about the physical, intellectual, and social characteristics of the four-year-old; it is much more important to be able actually to cope with the particular behaviour problems of real children in a nursery school. It seems that, at present, in most countries, teachers are better prepared to answer the examination question than to handle practical classroom problems, and there was great emphasis, in the early part of the discussion, on a point which has been very clearly made in recent publications on the education and training of teachers, for example, in "Teachers for our Time" :

The purpose of the teacher's study of human nature should not be the sheer satisfaction of curiosity. What is learned is to be used to promote learning—and other desirable growth characteristics—in others. The test of knowledge about child growth and development will be the skill with which it is professionally employed.

It was the opinion of the Group that a more practical bias should be given to the subject. It was considered that in using this utilitarian approach some countries are ahead of others, and valuable lessons can be learnt from them; but, at the same time the Group felt that in no country was the present situation entirely satisfactory, and that nowhere had a complete escape been made from dependence upon textbooks and lectures to a really practical study of the child.

METHODS LEADING TO IMPROVEMENT

Many more opportunities should, it was felt, be provided for students in training to associate with and observe children at work, at play, and in other social circumstances. Most of the observation should be intelligently guided by members of the staff of the training institution.

The Study Group offered a number of suggestions for improvement. These, though new to some, were familiar enough to others; but, even where well-known, they had seldom been applied in actual practice. The following activities, already conducted in some teacher-training institutions, might usefully be more widely adopted.

(i) Participation by prospective teachers in the out-of-school activities of children

It was felt that by sharing the child's play and observing him at play, the prospective teacher can make valuable discoveries which cannot be made in the classroom. It was emphasized that the observation should not be haphazard; that a good deal of it at least should be guided by the college lecturer responsible for teaching about child growth and development. Here, for example, is a simple exercise employed in one college, which seems likely to help intelligent observation:

- Observe children in the playground. Make a list of their play activities. Note the correction and the criticism they give one another. Who are the leaders? Can you give any reason why these children are the leaders? What use, if any, could you make in the classroom of the games you see them playing?

(ii) Making records concerning particular children

It was argued that much of what is said in lectures and books comes alive only when prospective teachers make careful observations and records concerning particular children. It was emphasized that in the making of these records students need considerable guidance. They should be encouraged to record the actual facts as objectively as possible and should be warned of the risks of leaping prematurely to interpretations of observed facts.

(iii) Familiarizing prospective teachers with record cards

In many school systems record cards play an increasingly important part. In a number of cases, for example, they have replaced or are replacing the old untrustworthy examination system as a means of determining the child's scholastic future. It was, of course, obvious

to group members that to a great extent the compilation, and certainly the interpretation, of records is work for trained and experienced school advisers; but it was also clear that the adviser is dependent upon the help and guidance of classroom teachers, and it seems important that students should be trained in the understanding of records and thus enabled to provide intelligent help.

(iv) *The making of sociograms* to show the interrelations and inter-action of children in school groups*

During the discussions on the social development of children, most members of Group I had their first introduction to the sociogram technique. It seemed an admirable device for discovering social relations in the classroom, and for learning facts about children which would be of immediate, practical value to the teachers. It was clear that, in describing, illustrating, and commending the technique to college students, lecturers would need to give careful warnings against its possible misuse; but it was thought that the use of this technique would give future teachers a means of studying objectively the development of children.

(v) *The observation of children in child guidance clinics*

It was found that a number of teacher training institutions have their own child guidance clinics and use them as a means of teaching about child growth and development. It seemed to the entire Group that here was an example to be followed wherever possible and that observation by prospective teachers of trained advisers at work would be very much more valuable than reading texts and listening to lecturers.

THE TEACHING OF SYSTEMATIC PSYCHOLOGY

Two members of the Group expressed the opinion that the study of child growth and development is facilitated by a previous and systematic consideration of the principles of psychology. They deplored the fact that students of psychology have often been burdened by excessive detail, but felt that much is to be gained by a clear presentation of basic concepts, and by familiarizing students with the different schools of thought in psychology. One of them wished to emphasize the particular value of the psycho-analytical

* See Appendix A.

approach, but at the same time warned against the careless use of psycho-analytical terms and concepts.

Other members of the Group, however, felt little sympathy with this point of view. They felt there was a great need to depart from the logical, systematic theory of the past, and to emphasize in teaching that the student or teacher must learn from real children in order to help other real children. They believed that a beginning should always be made by studying child behaviour, in and out of school. In short, their point of view was that expressed so clearly in the Scottish Report on "Training of Teachers":

Through this experience he (i.e., the student teacher) should learn what to observe and how to observe; and group discussions of his observations will inevitably lead him to make excursions into psychology proper. He will thus obtain a thorough knowledge of child development, and of the ways in which psychology can help him in handling children and presenting educational activities to them at the various stages of development. He will also obtain that psychological insight which is of more importance to the teacher than knowledge about psychology, together with a systematic understanding of children and a respect for their liberty of development. Towards the end there should, of course, be a process of systematization of the knowledge gained, and the student should have a grasp of psychology as a science in its own right.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION — PUTTING PRINCIPLES INTO SCHOOL PRACTICE

It was stressed that if we are looking for real understanding of child growth, and for ability on the part of teachers to make practical use of it, we must pay fuller attention to in-service education. Members of the Group were impressed by an account of the work done by the in-service section of the United States Commission on Teacher Education. The opportunity given to the American teachers to identify their real classroom problems, and then to seek their own solutions through "workshop" methods with the help of experts, seemed to provide suggestions for teacher-education worthy of immediate adoption.

It was generally agreed that educational practice has not kept pace with the knowledge of child development which has been confirmed by research findings. This is partly due to the fact that much of this research has been done in a laboratory atmosphere—at best an artificial one in comparison with the actual school environment—by persons who may have had little contact with children in school,

and who are not responsible for putting their findings into practice. In addition, the means of imparting the results of research to teachers are usually inadequate. To narrow the gap between research and its application, it was suggested that teachers should be encouraged to cooperate with experts in carrying out experiments relating to child growth and development.

Certain conditions are essential if this is to be made possible:

(i) The work environment of both future teachers and those in service must be one in which experimentation is actively encouraged.

(ii) There should be a continuous programme of in-service education in which teachers join freely and which they consider an integral part of their professional work.

(iii) Adequate time must be provided for teachers to take part in these programmes.

(iv) The object of the research carried on through such a programme must be the genuine concern of the teachers, and should be directly related to their day-to-day task of providing the best possible instruction for their pupils.

(v) The assistance of research experts, acting as consultants and working directly with the teachers, is essential.

(vi) At every step in the research the teachers must be willing and able to form objective judgments.

More detailed information concerning these plans for co-operative research can be found in the eight volumes of the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., U.S.A., particularly in the two volumes entitled *Teacher Education in Service* and *Helping Teachers Understand Children*.

Teachers interested in the kinds of research problems which relate directly to the work of teachers, and which demand investigation in an actual school atmosphere, may find the following activities useful. Some of them have already been mentioned.

(i) Keeping records of children

The keeping of these records, which contain a descriptive—not interpretative—account of a child's behaviour over an extended period of time, will enable the teacher to meet more efficiently the needs of individual children and will also provide a fuller understanding of the behaviour of all children.

(ii) Constructing a sociogram of group relationships

This is a means by which a teacher may gain a clearer insight into individual child needs as well as group relationships. Through

asking children such questions as "Of all the boys and girls in the room with whom would you rather play (or work)?" a teacher may obtain information leading to a graphic representation of group and individual relations. Actual evidence in terms of isolates, stars of attraction, rejections, relationships of sub-groups to the entire group, etc., is then available. It is possible to see readily which group members are attracted to each other; to discern situations in which one individual may actually be rejected by a group member to whom he is attracted; to identify those individuals who are generally attractive to, rejected by, or ignored by, the group generally; and to measure the significance of such person-to-person relationships in the work and structure of the entire group. *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (see reference above) gives detailed attention to both anecdotal records and to the sociogram. (See Appendix A)

(iii) *Studying what constitutes genuine group planning*

Research and experimentation in the means by which teachers may guide the work of pupil leaders, and study of the reactions of different teachers to pupil-teacher planning activities are two methods which have proved useful to teachers. Two recent publications in the field of research are *A Guide to Study and Experimentation in Co-operative Planning* and the *Role of the Teacher in Teacher-Pupil Planning*, issued by the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute in School Experimentation, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, U.S.A.

(iv) *Considering the rôle and operation of the teacher in the matter of group control*

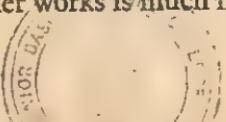
Teachers who make a study of their own means of group control can more readily draw conclusions concerning the application of various types of control to a variety of learning institutions.

(v) *Investigating the make-up of various types of groups in terms of the efficiency with which they accomplish a particular task*

Teachers and children in classroom situations may experiment with groups variously constituted according to size, homogeneity, type of leadership, etc., in order to determine the sort of group which best undertakes different kinds of tasks.

(vi) *Discovering the best procedure for helping slow learners improve their efficiency in basic skills*

Some research now available indicates that the improvement of the social atmosphere in which a slow learner works is much more effective



than isolated remedial work. Further observation and experimentation in classroom situations would contribute to the solution of this universal and important problem.

(vii) *Determining to what extent the school programme provides a variety of learning activities leading to the all-round growth and development of individuals*

Through keeping and analyzing records of the way in which children in a given group spend their time during the course of a school week (or varying periods of time), judgments may be made concerning the adequacy of the school programme in providing opportunities for creative activities, group planning, rest and play, individual attention to basic skills, sedentary work, group problem-solving, etc. Results of such study and analysis provide a basis not only for judging present practices, but also for determining the directions of improvement and change.

2. THE TEACHER AS A PERSON — IMPLICATIONS FOR RECRUITMENT

From time to time, members of Group I found that a consideration of the growth and development of children led inevitably to the problem of the mental health of teachers. What happens to boys and girls in school depends in large measure on the personal growth and development of the teachers with whom they have to work. Various research studies show clearly that the emotional stability of teachers affects that of pupils. Unhappy, frustrated, dissatisfied teachers cannot help their pupils to become happy, well-adjusted young people.

The group discussed in some detail the circumstances peculiar to the vocation of teaching which contribute to personal maladjustment. Since the problem of recruiting and keeping sufficient numbers of teachers of the right kind is acute in almost all countries, it then considered possible remedies for the situation. The following paragraphs sum up part of the general discussion on teachers as persons, emphasizing the need of further research; they also describe the main implications for recruitment which seemed to follow.

THE TEACHER AS A PERSON

There is a growing realization among modern educators that it is not enough to make the nature and needs of children the focal point

in education. It is essential to go further, to study the total field or *gestalt* in the classroom or school, and to understand the nature of the many elements and forces at work in the school situation. In stressing the needs of children, perhaps the nature and needs of teachers have been overlooked. Certainly much more is known about the psychology of children than about the psychology of teachers. Yet it is obvious that teachers cannot make full and effective use of the great body of knowledge on child growth and development unless their own needs are finding some measure of fulfilment both in and out of school.

Teaching, like any other occupation, brings with it certain frustrations. In the past, the tendency has been to ascribe these frustrations to such causes as low salaries, slow promotion, and poor conditions of work in general. Our purpose here, however, is to indicate briefly some of the less obvious sources of frustration to which research might profitably be directed.

(i) Choice of teaching as a career

It is not clear why men and women become teachers. It is likely that some choose teaching because of a positive attraction to the work, that others drift into teaching through lack of a better alternative, and that still others plan to use teaching as a stepping-stone to another profession. This being so, many will find their occupation a source of frustration regardless of how good their working conditions may be. This frustration may lead to depreciation of the occupational group, personal feelings of inadequacy, and open or concealed hostility to colleagues and children.

Research is needed also into the personality best suited for teaching. Many research workers have observed that members of any occupation tend to "cluster about some personality type". It has been shown that an interest in "people rather than things" is a basic factor in occupational choice, and certainly one which affects the choice of teaching as a career. It is becoming increasingly clear that the choice of an occupation is not an haphazard matter, or the result of economic forces alone. As Low* points out, "The so-called accident of one's life work is never a chance affair, but is motivated by powerful unconscious wishes which may result in a well or ill-chosen career."

* Low, Barbara, *The Unconscious in Action*. University of London Press, 1928.

Apart from this, not enough is known of the innate and acquired skills necessary for teaching. Lack of either verbal or manual facility may result in teaching difficulties and may thus produce frustration. Many unsatisfactory teachers might be happier in administrative posts. A better understanding of skills would pave the way to more efficient placement of teachers and others in the educational structure.

In general, the selection of teachers at present is haphazard and superficial because not enough is known about the psychology of teachers. Proper selection would eliminate, at the source, many of the frustrations which develop later.

(ii) Development of teachers in service

There is great need to know about what happens to the personality of teachers in service. The emphasis in the past has been on what teachers do to children, but the problem of what children do to teachers has been neglected.

Every occupation makes its impress on the workers engaged in it. This is particularly true in teaching, where the constant association with children, reinforced by partial isolation from the adult world, may produce attitudes, habits and modes of behaviour which rapidly reduce the effectiveness of teachers, both in their work with children and in their association with adults. There is, perhaps, a grain of truth in the fairly common view that no one should teach for more than five to ten years because of the effects of teaching on personality. On the other hand, the most valuable and effective teaching is usually done by teachers who have matured in years and experience. Whether long and continuous experience as a teacher impoverishes or enriches individual growth depends on effects which have as yet been insufficiently studied. But because of the special impact which teachers make on the growing generation, the study of the mental health and personality development of teachers must be of primary concern.

(iii) The relationship of the teacher to the community

While some of the isolation which teachers may suffer is due to tendencies within themselves, much of it is caused by the attitude of the community within which they live. Waller * says the teacher

* Waller, W., *The Sociology of Teaching*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932.

"is isolated because the community isolates him. It insists on regarding him as something more than a god and less than a man. He is psychologically isolated from the community because he must live within the teacher stereotype".

Racial stereotypes, current conceptions or misconceptions of particular races of people, are more familiar than occupational stereotypes. But misunderstanding about members of many occupations not only exists, but also affects the attitude and behaviour of the community towards these occupations. The phrase "a typical teacher" is current in all communities.

For many reasons the stereotype of the teacher is not a favourable one. The teacher's dual role of helping the child to express himself on the one hand while restraining certain impulses on the other gives rise to an ambivalent attitude towards teachers, in which both respect and antagonism are present in varying proportions. Unfortunately this ambivalence usually does not pass with childhood, but remains as a determining element in the attitudes of the adult world towards teachers. It is perhaps more responsible than is generally realized for deterring adolescents from entering the teaching profession, and it has effects which have not yet been measured on the teacher's estimation of his own group and of himself. It might well be said that one of the major tasks in social education is that of eliminating the stereotype regarding teachers.

These are but a few of the problems in the field of educational research which have received inadequate attention. There is a certain amount of truth in the statement, "The teacher, not the child, is the crux of all educational problems. Probably any one of half a dozen 'systems' would work equally well if the right people were in charge of the young in classrooms". But there is greater truth in regarding neither the child nor the teacher as the "crux of all educational problems", and in making the study of the total field and the inter-action of elements within it the focus of educational research.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RECRUITMENT

Having discussed some of the subtler as well as the more obvious influences which affect adolescents in their consideration of teaching as a profession, and which help to build attitudes, in teachers and others, towards teachers and their work, members of the group explored possibilities for improving the situation. They asked themselves and each other what steps could be taken to raise the prestige both of teachers themselves and of teaching as a profession.

They advanced a number of suggestions. Probably no one of them is particularly new. However, perhaps the fact that they summarize the views of fourteen people from a dozen different countries makes it worth while to record them.

(i) *The resources necessary for the attainment of a good life in modern society must be made available to teachers*

(a) It is clear that the financial rewards of teachers must be improved. This measure would include not only a raising of average salaries and provision for adequate retirement allowances, but also the provision of considerably better salaries for those who reach the higher teaching and administrative positions. It is felt that this policy would induce capable and suitable young people to join the profession with a view to making teaching their life work. It would then no longer be possible to make the gibe that teaching is a noble profession strongly recommended to idealistic young people with small appetites. If teaching is important work, the people who carry heavy responsibilities in education should have rewards not altogether incompatible with those offered by other professions.

(b) The conditions under which teachers work should be made attractive. Schools should be pleasant places; teachers should have the tools and equipment necessary for providing education as it is now conceived; and the quality of human relationships among all the people involved should be at the highest possible level.

(c) Teachers' living conditions should be such as to conduce to a satisfying life. The appropriate authorities should see that adequate housing is available. Unreasonable and unnecessary restrictions on out-of-school life should be removed. Such restrictions, common to many countries, inevitably deter many suitable people from entering the profession.

(ii) *The channels of communication between the school and the community should be made more effective*

(a) Publicity given to the work of schools should be increased and improved. A good deal of public apathy towards the work of educators may be traced to simple ignorance which the educators could themselves remove. In letting people know what their own schools are doing, much more effective use could be made of the radio, the press, and the cinema.

(b) The public-relations programme of individual schools or

school systems should be a genuine two-way process. School buildings should be available to the public as centres of community activity as well as places for the education of the young. Parents should share directly in the total community responsibility for education. Parent-teacher associations, properly conducted, can help to make the relationship between school and community a thoroughly dynamic one.

(c) The satisfaction resulting from the work of teaching should be conveyed both to adolescents making a vocational choice and to the adults whose advice strongly affects the choice.

Responsibility for increasing respect for the profession rests with class-room teachers no less than with educational authorities and administrators. To any good teacher, it is obvious that his work can be done happily and with pride. Socially it is of the utmost importance, and there need be little about it that is monotonous. He has satisfaction of a high order as he sees children successfully overcoming their difficulties. He has the joy that comes from association with the buoyancy and enthusiasm of youth.

Nevertheless, there are many teachers who, by their grumblings and complaints, frighten away suitable prospective recruits. Despite certain disadvantages, teaching is work which can be honestly recommended to the right kind of boy and girl, and much might be achieved if teachers and their organizations, as well as educational authorities, accepted responsibility for making this known.

Certain special methods of interesting adolescents in the work of teaching have been suggested, and have been tried apparently with some success in various countries. For example, in some parts of the U. S. A., high school students have been encouraged to work with children in the class-room. This method has proved particularly effective where the practical experience has been with very young children. Another device is to show attractive films of life at a teachers' college, and still another to prepare brochures stressing the satisfaction which comes to any teacher really suited to his work.

Publicity designed for recruitment should not be aimed at adolescents only. Vocational choice is, of course, typically an adolescent choice. There are, however, many people who realize in their twenties or thirties that teaching is the work they would really like to do. As has been demonstrated clearly by the English Emergency Training Scheme, if we offer such people a genuine "second chance" we can considerably increase the numbers of suitable teachers.

(iii) *The major responsibility for raising the prestige of teachers and of teaching rests with members of the profession themselves*

(a) Of first importance is the quality of teacher education. Convinced of this, some members of the group argued that recruitment and teacher prestige would be improved by linking the preparation of teachers much more closely with universities. Others were not convinced that it is either the only or the best method of raising the quality of teacher education. The unanimous opinion, however, was that, in scope and extent, preparation for teaching should not be inferior to preparation for other professions.

(b) The atmosphere in which teachers work should be one in which initiative and creative effort can flourish. It seems clear that many teachers in many countries are still subjected to supervision which is excessive, arbitrary, and autocratic, and that this supervision keeps good people out of the profession. What we must establish is a situation in which teachers feel free to experiment, to share in policy making, and to contribute to a co-operative effort. Such a group atmosphere is the only one likely to attract intelligent, independent, creative people.

(c) Class-room teachers can themselves play a major role through the quality of their own day-to-day work. Many suitable young people avoid the teaching profession because many teachers do dreary work in a depressing manner. On the other hand, some are attracted to the profession by teachers whose pleasure in their work is evident and whose enthusiasm is contagious. When we have more teachers of this kind, the most important obstacle to increased prestige may well be removed.

(d) Active teacher participation in professional organizations can help to improve public attitudes towards teachers and teaching. Particularly is this so if these organizations show keen interest, not only in teacher welfare, but also in general educational problems.

(iv) *Communities convinced of the importance of education should take fuller financial responsibility for the preparation of teachers*

(a) In a number of countries it is still common for promising secondary school pupils to be obliged, by economic conditions, to leave school early to earn a livelihood. Financial assistance should be available to enable such students to complete their courses. Assistance would provide additional recruits to the profession of teaching as well as to other professions.

(b) Adequate financial assistance to students in training would

help to attract suitable recruits. At present some countries provide quite generous allowances, whereas others provide little or nothing.

3. EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

The central concern of Group I was child growth and development. For the most part we were interested in considering how this was regarded in the various countries represented in the Group, and how teachers could be helped in their task of encouraging the best possible individual and social development in children. We discussed the various stages of growth from infancy to adulthood, sharing our suggestions concerning the educational implications of this development, and each member of the Group had an opportunity to lead a discussion on some subject of special interest to him.

The Group was well aware that one of Unesco's chief aims in bringing us together was for us to consider how teachers could be helped in encouraging international understanding among their pupils. We therefore spent some time discussing how, during the period of child growth and development, attitudes favourable to international understanding could best be developed.

Many countries, having in mind the maintenance of good international relations, have looked to their teachers as possible leaders in international understanding, and to their schools as possible instruments of peace.

It is, of course, no easy task. Some people have drawn hope from recent history. Thinking of the extraordinary effectiveness of perverted education in Fascist countries, they have imagined that the schools might work with equal effectiveness for peace, if only the same energy and enthusiasm were devoted to that end. Unfortunately, the solution is not as simple as that.

What happened in the totalitarian countries was that training replaced education. Young citizens, as well as older ones, were drilled and trained for obedient service to the State. And as M. L. Jacks and others have reminded us, "Between training and education there is a great gulf fixed". Fascist philosophy was plain and clear cut. Mussolini summed it up this way: "Everything must be for the State; nothing outside the State; nothing against the State". When a whole nation embraces that simple, if terrifying, philosophy, the task of the school is simple — as simple as the gardener's task

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in training a plant. But genuine education is a slower and much more difficult business.

There is another reason for avoiding easy optimism about what teachers and schools can do in the cause of peace. Actually, no school can ever be very far ahead of the society it serves. People deceive themselves if they look idealistically to the education of the young to produce a new world order. Schools may, and generally do, represent the best elements in the surrounding culture; they should be, and they generally are, above the average level of the community in their regard for truth and honesty and fair dealing. Some of them contrive to raise appreciably the standards and values of the people. But however advanced teachers may be, schools must serve the purposes of the society in which they function. That is one reason why the rate of educational progress often seems painfully slow.

HOW TEACHERS CAN CONTRIBUTE TO INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

We have said that it is useless and hopeless to expect teachers to produce a new world simply by improving the education of the young. What then can they do to promote understanding and peace among the nations? We feel that the answer depends on five conditions:

(i) First of all, outside the school, teachers can play their part as intelligent and educated adults. At this point in history, it is on the grown-ups that the hope of the world depends. In the next few critical years, it is adults, not children, who will determine important national policies. Children are full of curiosity, eager and willing to learn. It is the adults of our communities, with their fears, their prejudices, their old habits of thinking, or refusing to think, who undo the good work of our schools, and retard the progress of mankind. If a third world war is to be prevented, the chief immediate educational responsibility is in the field of the adult rather than of the child. It is for teachers, as people above average in training and in conscientiousness, to find time for grown-ups as well as children, and to give all possible support to those organizations which are concerned with informing the mind and stirring the social conscience of the adult community.

(ii) The second thing for teachers to do is to perform as efficiently as they can their tasks as teachers of the young. When we have international understanding in mind, this means we must do several things better than we have ever done them before. In particular, this means better teaching of the social studies.

In his *Principles of Social Reconstruction*, Bertrand Russell roundly condemns history teaching everywhere: "History in every country is so taught as to magnify that country; children learn to believe that their own country has always been in the right and almost always victorious, that it has produced almost all the great men, and that it is in all respects superior to other countries. . . the false ideas as to the history of the world which are taught in the various countries are of a kind which encourage strife and serve to keep alive a bigoted nationalism".

Though that criticism may have been almost generally deserved before the first world war, between the two wars it was by no means warranted. In that interval, many teachers tried to convey the achievements of other groups and nations as well as of their own. They tried to make children realize that modern civilization is not the product of the genius of one people, but rather the result of the cumulative and co-operative efforts of many peoples. Teachers have tried in a variety of ways to eliminate perverted notions about other nations and other races. But apparently they did not try hard enough; at least they were not very successful. In *The Educational Forum* in January, 1939, there appeared an article entitled: "A Teacher Stops to Think", by Norman Grey. It appeared that Grey began to teach, as so many other enthusiastic youngsters have begun, confident that men could solve the problems of misunderstanding within and between nations, and that the chief instrument was education. After twenty years of teaching in a distinguished university, he found his faith badly shaken. "I am thinking of humanity, which is the real subject of our learning and teaching. . . I am thinking of new doctrines and political systems, of wars and rumours of wars, of the glorification of cruelty and hatred and intolerance, of the spread of exclusiveness and snobbery, of ignorance and prejudice and pride. We teachers have not, I want to believe, encouraged this darkness, but neither have we done anything to discourage it. We, who have introduced thousands to *War and Peace* and *Anna Karenina* and *Fathers and Sons*, have not dissuaded them from believing that all Russians are bearded, unwashed barbarians. We have given them *La Débâcle*, *What Price Glory?* and *All Quiet on the Western Front*, and they have learned nothing. They have been moved neither to grief nor reflection, neither to indignation nor action, for they have not understood. We have taught them Literature, but we have not taught them to understand Man, neither themselves nor their neighbours, who still remain for them 'Wops', 'Reds', 'Jews', 'Catholics', 'Foreigners', 'New Dealers', 'Hoboes', 'Heathens'."

Undoubtedly the social studies must be taught more effectively than ever before. Teachers must also teach straight thinking better than it was ever taught before. This is a task which H. L. Mencken, it will be remembered, dismissed as impossible. "The teacher is expected", wrote Mencken, "to make ordinary men think clearly and logically, and if there is just one thing of which ordinary men are by nature and eternally incapable, it is clear and logical thinking". Hence, he argued, the sheer impossibility of the teacher's task.

But despite Mencken, teachers can and must do better work in this field. They can and must teach students to use their eyes and their ears with sufficient intelligence to distinguish fact from propaganda, and to substitute comprehension for prejudice. They can, if they try hard enough, develop a proper regard for orderly methods, and for the use of reason rather than force. They can provide understanding of, and safeguards against, the tricks of crooked oratory and argument by which the minds of men have so often been tragically led astray. In our schools, fuller and better use can be made of methods of discussion.

* (iii) Another obvious thing to do is to teach science better, together with its social implications. No doubt the teaching of science will now give rather special attention to nuclear fission, and to the choice which men must make about its use, whether for peace or war, whether to enrich human life or to destroy it.

(iv) Again, and very obviously, both in our institutions which prepare teachers for their work and in the schools where their work is done, we must win our students' support for those international authorities whose concern is the maintenance of peace. There comes to mind a small Teachers' College, far from the site of this Seminar, which illustrates the kind of thing which could be done more widely. In social studies courses, special emphasis is placed on the purposes and the functioning of the UN organs and agencies. The college paper devotes a column or more in each issue to some phases of Unesco work. A local branch of the UN Association has been formed by the students, and this means that all UN publications are available for study and discussion. This branch has accepted an invitation from the UN Department of Information at Lake Success to act as a distributing agent for UN information, and to undertake some publicizing of UN work. Thus there is lively education for international understanding among prospective teachers in this college. Not only do prospective teachers learn a good deal about the UN, but they also have the much

more convincing experience of actually doing something about it. It is interesting and heartening to recall that a lecturer from this college took part in the Unesco Seminar at Sèvres.

We have so far argued against any easy optimism concerning what teachers and schools can do in the cause of peace. We have insisted, however, that the teacher has a not unimportant part to play in the adult community outside the school, and in teaching certain subjects within the school. As has been indicated, we attach particular importance to some subjects, notably the social studies, and feel that teachers of those subjects have a special responsibility.

(v) We would like finally to suggest that a proper understanding by teachers of child growth and development and a proper application of what has been learned have a close bearing on the development of international understanding. We do not pretend that the many problems of misunderstanding, both within and between nations, can be solved by the simple adoption, in the education of the young, of a wiser approach to child growth and development. We would argue, however, that an approach which focuses attention on the development of mature individuals who know how to share in group living and raise its quality has its effects on efforts towards the attainment of a world society. We appreciate the significance of political and economic factors in producing international tensions. We hold nevertheless that in a very real sense "wars begin in the minds of men", that war is a mental disorder strictly analogous with the psychological diseases it sometimes causes. Therefore, we regard it as a matter of first importance for social and international living that educators should be more concerned with the child, and the healthy development of his body and mind, than with the content of the various subjects which go to make a school curriculum.

Most schools in most places are still too little concerned to develop worthwhile people. For example, in the primary school years a child grows in four main ways—physically, intellectually, emotionally, and socially. The function of the primary school is to encourage successful growth of all four kinds. It is still a fair criticism of the average school that, because of its pre-occupation with facts and mechanical skills, it over-emphasizes intellectual growth and pays insufficient attention to physical, emotional, and social needs.

At least it might be argued that the schools look after intellectual growth. But although the teachers may devote a disproportionate time to intellectual training, those whose interest is centred in facts and skills rather than in individual children and groups of children, court failure even in this limited field. Consider, for example,

the over-emphasis on mathematics in many schools, the crazy examples which are often set, the disregard shown for the child's stage of growth. Consider the mere fact collecting which so often passes for social studies. Consider the time and energy wasted and the frustration endured because teachers either do not know when children are ready to learn, or fail to apply their knowledge. Because of failure to adopt a wise approach to child growth and development, the primary school still tends to function as if it were an institution for the abolition of illiteracy, instead of the place where children may develop, happily and naturally, in the four main ways mentioned above.

In the development of individuals who know how to live with others, much could be accomplished by a greater regard for what is already known about the development of the young. This regard would lead to a practical recognition of the unique worth and the individual pattern of growth of every child. It would mean practical acceptance of the principle that, in human development, there are recognizable stages of maturity. It would mean also genuine acceptance of the view that each aspect of growth and development—intellectual, physical, emotional, social—is an integral part of a total process of growth. Fuller regard for such principles could not fail to produce young people with better integrated personalities, more skilled in the precious art of getting along with others.

If progress is to be made in the field of international understanding, there are many problems to be solved. We suggest that in some of the fields in which research must be undertaken a distinctive contribution could be made by those particularly concerned with child development.

(vi) A wise approach to child development is required in conducting investigations into the interests and needs of learners at varying maturity levels in order to determine at what time the important concepts and understandings can best be acquired. The same approach is required in research which attempts to determine how attitudes and values are learned, and where they originate.

Such an approach is also necessary in investigations which involve not only improved concepts and attitudes in the field of international understanding, but also readiness and capacity to act in accordance with those concepts and attitudes.

One very relevant field of research is that of developing the social skills which are as necessary in international relations as in relations within a single group or culture. While some interesting pioneer work has been done, there is urgent need for further enquiry,

through the co-operative efforts of class-room teachers and research specialists, into the skills needed in group planning and the procedures most suitable for building them. A list of such skills would include the following:

- (a) Ability to evaluate and to use constructively the differences of opinion, ability, and personality shown by any group.
- (b) Ability to differ from the opinion of another person without disturbance of friendly personal relationship.
- (c) Ability to arrive at a consensus on a controversial matter without having to resort to a mere majority-minority decision.
- (d) Ability to reconcile individual needs and purposes with those of other members of the group.
- (e) Ability to play the rôle either of leader or of follower at the appropriate time.
- (f) Ability to select group leaders in terms of the particular situation and the type of leadership necessary.
- (g) Ability to continue a discussion till the appropriate conclusion is reached, and then to help the group to move from talk to action.
- (h) Ability to work as one group with another group in order to make a joint attack upon common problems.

Such social skills, we claimed, were of obvious value in dealing with the misunderstandings which inevitably arise in any single culture. They are surely of equal value in coping with misunderstandings between different cultures. We believe these social skills are most likely to develop in a school system where emphasis is placed on the development of mature persons rather than on the mere acquisition of knowledge and mechanical skills.

It is not claimed that important contributions to the development of such skills will come only from people who adopt a wise approach to human development. On the contrary, it is only as experts in this area co-operate with sociologists, anthropologists, historians, geographers, economists and other social science specialists that we may hope to see real solutions of the difficult problems of human relations. The claim which is made by Group I is that an essential contribution can be made by those who understand the processes and stages of child growth.

4. SOME TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Many participants in the Seminar felt the need to take back to their countries information on ideas and practices in teacher training which have proved valuable in other parts of the world. To meet

this need, the members of Group I were asked to contribute notes on developments in their own countries. These notes, supplemented by conclusions set out in the report on *The Improvement of Teacher Education* * were discussed by the whole group, and those trends which seemed most significant have been listed below. It must be emphasized that no attempt has been made to cover the field systematically, nor to evaluate the points listed. It is hoped, however, that this brief report will provide useful information to those interested in recent changes in teacher education.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

(i) A shift in emphasis from subject-teaching to the needs of the child

- (a) Emphasis on child growth and development rather than general educational psychology.
- (b) Increased contact with and study of children out of school, in play centres, youth clubs, parks, canteens, or in the streets.
- (c) Re-organization of college curriculum so as to provide for the co-operation of several departments on combined projects.
- (d) Substantial reduction in the number of subjects in the curriculum.
- (e) Increased "free time" to allow students to work on projects.
- (f) Greater independence for students during working hours.
- (g) Increased allocation of time for general education as opposed to more specific professional instruction.
- (h) A tendency to move away from the formal end-of-the-year examination towards a credit system in deciding promotion.

(ii) Greater use of activity methods

- (a) Increased participation by students in planning courses and methods of study.
- (b) Increased opportunity for students to evaluate and criticize all aspects of the work, including the efficiency of tutors.
- (c) Greater freedom in choice of subjects.
- (d) Use of the last few weeks of the school year for experiments in activity projects, handled largely by students.
- (e) Allocation of working time for student clubs of an educational nature.
- (f) In general, a tendency to abandon rule from above in favour of democratic cooperation between staff and students.

* *The Improvement of Teacher Education*. A Final Report by the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education.

(iii) Increase in direct experience

- (a) Greater use of visits to institutions where direct experience of new methods can be obtained.
- (b) More excursions into the country to study the natural sciences.
- (c) Arranging of tours to other countries and districts.
- (d) Collection of specimens, in preference to notes.
- (e) Greatly increased use of camps for both educational and social purposes.

(iv) Increased emphasis on social understanding and social service

- (a) Increased field study of local environment, social conditions and culture.
- (b) Encouragement of students to take part in community social services such as adult education, youth organizations, first aid, teaching of crafts, fighting illiteracy, spreading information on hygiene.
- (c) Training of youth leaders as a college activity.
- (d) Training of senior students in vocational guidance and intelligence testing procedures.

(v) Encouragement of creative expression

- (a) Increased importance given to music, art, crafts, dramatic work and physical education in the college curriculum.
- (b) Provision of facilities for all students to take part in these activities.
- (c) Greater provision for specialization in these subjects after basic training has been completed.
- (d) Emphasis on the development of the prospective teacher as an integrated personality.

(vi) Increased use of resources outside the teachers' college

- (a) Use of university facilities in certain fields, for example, in study of anatomy and physiology; exchange of library privileges.
- (b) Greater use of outside lecturers for single lectures and for series of lectures.
- (c) Co-operation with child guidance clinics in work with difficult and backward children.
- (d) Increased invitations to cultural units such as orchestras, dramatic companies, demonstration teams to visit teachers' colleges.
- (e) Taking of teachers' college demonstration teams, plays, debating teams, etc., to outside audiences.
- (f) Invitation of high school audiences to college performances.



(g) Regular meetings with teachers from surrounding schools to discuss school practice and new projects.

(vii) Further training of teachers in service

- (a) A growing part taken by colleges in the further training of teachers already in service.
- (b) In America, rapid growth of the "workshop" movement, in which in-service teachers meet to work out immediate educational problems.
- (c) In-service courses and activities regarded as regular school work.
- (d) Provision of adequate finances for in-service training projects.
- (e) In America, development of informal state councils made up of representatives from all branches of education to act as clearing houses and co-ordinating centres for educational projects.
- (f) Appointment of full-time officers to organize courses for teachers-in-service.
- (g) Development of correspondence courses for ex-servicemen and students in outlying areas.

CONCLUSION

Though none of the developments outlined above may be particularly new or revolutionary, they show that a steady growth and change is taking place in teacher education. The old, academic, subject-dominated type of training is rapidly being displaced by a training aimed at the personal as well as professional development of the teacher and effective citizen.

Appendix A. A SOCIOGRAM

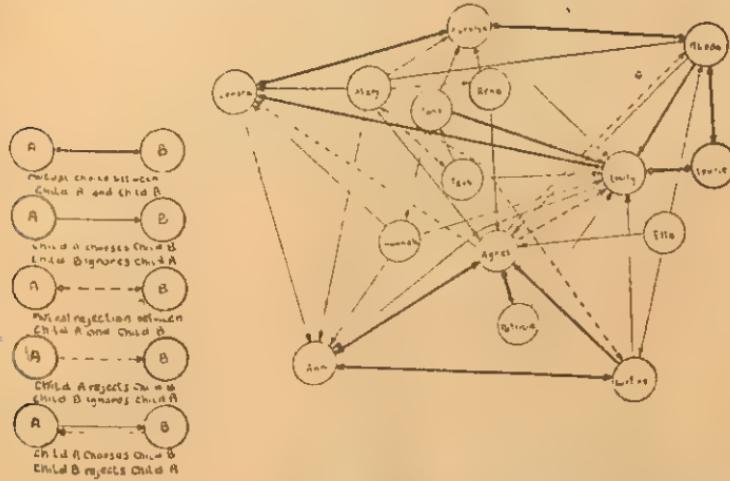
Below is given an example of how a sociogram is formed and how it is interpreted. It is taken from *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, published by the American Council on Education, 1945.

Miss D. was teaching a class of 15 children between 9-11 years of age. One day at the end of a lesson she said to them: "We have been reading together a book about three little friends, and I should like to know whom you would choose, from amongst those in this class, as your best friends. It might help me to plan things for you. Will you write on a piece of paper the names of those you choose? Do not write more than three names, even though you have more than three friends".

When the children had done this, Miss D continued: "Now, if there are some whom you would not choose for friends, write their names also. You may not know of any, or you may wish to name one, or you may have several in mind. Please do not write more than three names".

None of the children appeared surprised or bothered by this request. They seemed to accept quite naturally Miss D.'s explanation that their answers might help her to plan things for them. No mention of this activity as a "test" was ever made and their replies were never discussed with them or even mentioned in their presence.

After the lesson Miss D. made out a card for each pupil. She wrote the child's name—for example, Emily—at the top. Then, in a column on the left, she listed the names of the children Emily had chosen as friends and, below these, the names of those she had rejected. In a column on the right Miss D. placed the names of children who had selected Emily as a friend and below them, the names of those who had rejected her. When the children's replies had been tabulated on cards in this way, Miss D. spread the cards out on a table, and looked for the names of those who had been chosen most frequently. After making several preliminary sketches, she drew the following graph — or sociogram — of their replies to the questions she had asked them:



The graph gave her much food for thought. She saw that there were apparently two groups among the fifteen girls in her class. The larger one included six individuals: Emily, Jane, Lenora, Carolyn,

Rhoda, and Louise.. These girls were all tied by mutual choices into a sub-group which the teacher called in-group A. The other small clique, called in-group B, included Agnes, Lurline, Patricia, and Ann. Each of these sub-groups had one particularly influential or central person who was chosen by every other girl in the clique. In in-group A this person was Emily, in in-group B it was Agnes. Emily was chosen as a best friend by nine other girls, reciprocating in the case of four (evidently she felt unable to limit herself to the specified three choices); Agnes was selected by seven. No other girl was as frequently designated as these two. The two cliques were not insulated from each other. On the contrary, the evidence suggested that they inter-acted rather freely. For example, Ann of in-group B was chosen by Lenora and Emily from in-group A. Emily in turn was chosen by Patricia and Lurline from in-group B. On the other hand Agnes, the central figure of in-group B, rejected three prominent members of in-group A: Emily, Rhoda and Lenora.

Emily's popularity was a great surprise to Miss D. She had been so preoccupied with Emily's timidity and with her difficulties in class that she had completely overlooked the child's outstanding position in this group of girls.

Appendix B. CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY BY TEACHERS

A Lecture by Miss D. E. M. Gardner

Head of the Department of Child Development, University of London
Institute of Education

A study of the nature of children is perhaps the most important of all studies for the teacher in training. No one can educate others, in the fullest sense, without understanding the nature of his pupils; for if education is to succeed it must be based on the psychological needs of children at the different stages of their development.

The study of child psychology is, therefore, much more important than the study of methods of teaching; in fact, if the study of methods is to be of real value it must be closely linked with an understanding of why children learn best in certain ways. In addition, we may, by studying children, gain greater knowledge of ourselves.

To take an example which is of particular interest to the members of this Seminar, it is of great importance to the educator, if he

is to deal wisely with the aggressive impulses in children, that he shall be able to admit and to the same extent tolerate his own aggressive feelings, as well as to understand that all children will inevitably feel angry and hostile at times. It is always easier to deal wisely with a child when we are not shocked or startled by his behaviour, and when we can sympathize with the strength and urgency of his feelings, and understand how deep and imperious are the needs from which they spring. During the war many young teachers were very much disturbed by the acute problems of behaviour presented by young children who were separated from their parents. They did not always realize that the hostility at times shown towards them sprang from the child's deprivation of a close and secure relationship with his mother and father. They were inclined to blame themselves unduly for not managing the children better, and out of their self-reproach a feeling of irritability towards the children often arose. It is a great help to a young teacher to realize that manifestations of hostility in children are often symptomatic of the child's difficulties, and are not expressions of a settled attitude of personal hatred towards the teacher.

A study of young children is particularly necessary for all teachers because it is impossible to understand older children without realizing the foundations upon which their attitudes rest; and all children tend to behave like younger children in moments of stress. For the teacher of young children a study of babies and little children needs no justification. Its value is self-evident.

A study of child development is also one which is in itself of great interest and opens up a new field of knowledge to the students. Many of them come to college with a certain weariness about school subjects, and the freshness of a new study is stimulating for them. As they go further with the study of children they gain a new sense of the value of their work, and are stimulated to think and investigate for themselves.

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

I believe that the teaching of psychology cannot be entirely satisfactory at this early stage unless students and lecturer are constantly in contact with a group of children. Illustrations can then be given not from "the child" but from actual children known by everyone. The problems and characteristics of these children can then be discussed, and the varieties of personality evident in different children of the same age may be really appreciated. A

play centre, with enough student helpers to allow them to devote time to the individual child, is ideal for the purpose. Schools do not offer quite such good experience for clarifying the teaching of psychology unless the students can use a school which gives a considerable measure of freedom to the children. The student must be able to see children as they are. The play-room of a child guidance clinic might be useful at a later stage, but at first the students need normal children as well as those with special difficulties.

I believe that it is well worth while to devote the whole of the time available for psychology in the first term to observing and discussing actual children. The order of topics discussed will be somewhat haphazard, but the students will gain a scientific and enquiring attitude. Such observation acts as a safeguard later on against a merely passive acceptance of what is said in books.

The following types of observation are all useful, and I have found a place for them all at various points in the Training College course.

(i) Purely informal discussion such as may arise after a play centre session.

(ii) Asking the students to record special perplexities and outstanding points which have interested them in the behaviour of the children they are handling—remarks by the children, etc.

(iii) A systematic record of one child, using an observation schedule.

(iv) Observing the general characteristics of age-groups, with special purposes in mind—for example, relation with the adult, relation with other children, cause for quarrels, special interests, average attention span.

(v) (Later in the course) Simple research exercises such as those suggested in Goodenough & Anderson's *Experimental Child Study*. Time-sampling for the interests revealed in play I found particularly useful. One Training College lecturer who had previously had access only to very formal schools and not to play centres did valuable work in studying the times when attention was not being paid. The students realized how much time was wasted by formal methods. A study on the comparison of playground with class-room behaviour was also very revealing to them.

SYSTEMATIC STUDY OF PSYCHOLOGY

I have found it desirable to spend at least a year on developmental psychology from infancy to adolescence, with more time

devoted to the under-sevens for infant teachers, sevens-to-elevens for junior teachers, and over-elevens for secondary teachers.

Even the Nursery School teacher needs to study adolescence because (a) it is valuable for the teacher to look ahead and think of education as a unity; (b) there is much in common between the attitudes of young children and adolescents; (c) Nursery School teachers always have to handle adolescent helpers; and (d) the study of the adolescent often helps students with their own problems, and gives them considerable reassurance that their own difficulties are not unique.

Students should gain some insight into their own psychology, but I think that at this stage it is desirable that the subject be approached mainly by the study of children. This avoids making the students self-conscious or unduly introspective. Intellectual processes as such — perception, imagination, learning, memory, etc. — are best taught partly by experimental methods. A study of intelligence and intelligence tests is useful, and emotional needs as such should also be treated. It is helpful to discuss with students such topics as fear and anger, and sex should also be dealt with. It is also useful for them to consider the older conception of instincts with its limitations; and simple reference should be made to the contemporary schools of psychology, to child guidance work, and to the special needs of backward and difficult children.

The lecture method should not be overworked, and discussion should play a large part. Many topics which it would be desirable to deal with may be crowded out as a result, but I would rather risk this than hurry over the first part of the syllabus.

The Training College cannot hope to do more than make a beginning, which if successful, will start the teacher on a study that will continue throughout life.

EDUCATING TEACHERS
FOR SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING
BY
GROUP II

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I. EDUCATING PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS FOR SOCIAL
UNDERSTANDING

The authors of this report are well aware that there is no universal method of developing social understanding* in teachers. The suggestions and recommendations summarized here will not be acceptable to all in theory, still less in practice, and those who read the report will need to select whatever suits their own traditions and educational needs.

*A definition of social understanding is given as an appendix to this report.

In some countries the reasons for social friction and misunderstanding are obvious. In others it is necessary to look below the surface of an apparently harmonious social order. Even where serious differences do not appear to exist, teachers need to take an active interest in social affairs if they are to help their pupils to become good citizens. It is, therefore, important that every teachers' training college should accept, without reserve, the responsibilities involved in training students for better social understanding.

ORGANIZATION AND ATMOSPHERE OF THE TRAINING COLLEGE

The kind of institution recommended by the Group as one in which good human relationships are likely to develop is a community organized on democratic lines in which all members, students and staff alike, take part without artificial distinctions or discrimination. Students with the necessary educational and personal qualifications should be admitted, irrespective of sex, colour, class, or creed, and should if necessary be supported by government grants. The principal of the college and the members of the staff should themselves be in sympathy with democratic principles. They should be able to set an example of community living by their behaviour towards each other and towards the students. There should be full opportunities for social contacts between members of the staff, and between staff and students, in a free, friendly and secure atmosphere. For this reason the institution should be kept small enough to allow the formation of a well-knit community.

In the preparation of teachers, consideration should be given to the personal and social needs and difficulties of the students as well as to their educational and intellectual development. Courses should be of sufficient length to allow the development of the right attitudes in the students and to avoid rush and strain and a sense of incompleteness or unreadiness for teaching duties.

The training college should not be isolated, but should occupy an influential position in the larger community in which it exists and which it serves. It cannot remain independent of other educational and social institutions, and it should be prepared to use their resources freely.

TRAINING IN SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING THROUGH THE CURRICULUM

The subjects generally included in the curriculum of teacher training institutions are :

- (i) General education;
- (ii) Special subjects;

(iii) Professional studies

Members of the Group concluded after discussion that, given the right approach, all subjects to a greater or lesser degree could contribute both to social and international understanding.

✓ (i) General education

The classics and ancient history can be presented so as to show the influence of the past on the form and spirit of modern civilizations, and the way in which social problems and distinctions have recurred through the centuries. Modern languages and literature can illustrate the different ideals, customs and traditions of living peoples. The arts—painting and music—to which people of all classes and all countries have contributed can help students to appreciate the qualities of individuals, groups and nations, and to recognize the value of differences in an increasingly interdependent world.

A general course in science should be taken by all students-in-training if they have not already specialized in it. There are many opportunities in such a course for studying the social and possibly political implications of scientific knowledge, discovery and invention. The history of science and the biographies of scientists are full of magnificent examples of human achievement. The rational and unemotional investigation of facts which the scientific method provides can with advantage be brought to bear on those social problems which tend to be obscured by prejudice.

✓ (ii) Special subjects

History, geography, economics, civics and current social affairs, which are the main elements of a social studies course, can give a background for social understanding, and a realization of what is meant by good citizenship. It is recommended that these studies be related to situations which exist in real life, and include some active enquiry and practical experience in the community. Books, documents, aural and visual aids, lectures by visiting experts, and field trips can all be used to obtain data on specific social problems. Practical work, and the chance it gives to develop skill in making surveys and investigating social problems, will be a means of enlarging the sympathies of the prospective teacher. Studies of a more specialized kind might appeal, later in the course, to some of the more mature students who wish to master the techniques of research.

Courses in history, geography and economics should not, however, be too localized. If they are extended to the different problems, customs and ways of life of a number of countries, they can better

contribute to an understanding of national and international affairs, and can help to throw light on such matters as standards of living, economic rivalries, living space, labour problems, minority questions and large-scale economic planning, none of which are matters of purely national concern.

✓ (iii) *Professional studies*

For teachers in training, "professional subjects" will usually include: general, social, and educational psychology; principles of education, history of education; comparative education; and methods and practices of teaching. All these have a direct bearing on social understanding. For example, from a study of the history of education and particularly from comparative education, the student can learn to know and understand:

- (a) that the school reflects the economic and social structure of the community, and its ideals;
- (b) that it tends to reflect the social, racial and religious differences in society;
- (c) that the contributions to education made by outstanding individuals or groups can have an international influence;
- (d) that problems of organization and administration in education are often similar in different countries.

Professional subjects should not only give the student information about other systems and practices in education, but should help him to see those of his own country in perspective. As a part of the course in teaching methods, students should have opportunities for taking part in general school activities, for gaining experience in different types of schools in various districts, and for learning to make friendly contacts with the parents of the children.

DEVELOPING A SPIRIT OF SYMPATHY AND ENQUIRY

The Group considered it important that all subjects be studied as records of human experience and endeavour rather than as logically organized information. Much, of course, will always depend on the tutors, who should make it their conscious aim throughout the training to help the students to develop the necessary spirit of sympathy and enquiry.

It is suggested that students should be encouraged, not only during

term time but also in vacations, to seek social activity outside the college community by joining youth clubs and holiday camps, and by visiting factories, welfare centres, clinics, law courts, etc., in different districts. Enquiries into local conditions can provide the basis for discussions and may lead the students to make detailed studies of special social problems. In this way they will become aware of what problems exist and of what differences need attention and understanding. They will realize the importance to the teacher of knowing how people live and work and what their leisure-time interests are.

2. EDUCATING TEACHERS IN SERVICE FOR SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING

During the discussions on the education of future teachers for social understanding the group frequently referred to the equally important problem of continuing this education after the teachers had left the training college. It was not possible, however, to give this matter the attention and the time which it deserved, and the suggestions which follow are offered as a basis for discussion rather than as the recommendations of the Group.

The need for assistance is present at all stages of the teacher's career, but it is felt particularly by young teachers who find themselves in schools where the methods used are different from those which they have learnt, and where the other members of the staff are indifferent or even discouraging and antagonistic to the newcomer's interest in social problems and his desire to contribute to their solution. Teachers tend to work in isolation, seldom getting or being given an opportunity to see each other at work, to compare experiences or to collaborate. A large number of teachers consider their work satisfactorily done when they have imparted knowledge in an efficient way, and they know little about their pupils besides their intellectual abilities, school achievements and behaviour.

The following are some of the means which the Group considered valuable for developing greater social understanding in teachers in service:

- (i) Periodicals and reports edited by teachers' associations and educational institutions;
- (ii) Broadcast talks and forums;
- (iii) Books on social understanding reviewed in teachers' journals and made available in school libraries for the use of the teachers;
- (iv) Correspondence exchanges;

(v) Visits to educational centres where important experiments are being made concerning social attitudes, such as "activity schools", children's villages, camps and other youth organizations;

(vi) Study centres which will organize conferences, refresher courses and vacation courses. The topics for study, and the persons invited to deliver lectures, should be selected with a view to giving teachers a convincing and stimulating introduction to the social and economic problems of the moment.

Teachers' associations and educational authorities should endeavour to give teachers opportunities both to establish contact with their colleagues and to make friends outside their profession. Holidays in different surroundings, travel abroad and seminars will relieve the narrowness of outlook and the lack of social experience often caused by long service in the same place and with the same group.

3. THE SOCIAL ORDER AND ITS RELATION TO THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS FOR SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING

THE DEMOCRATIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY AND OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES

It is now an almost universally accepted democratic principle that there should be equal educational opportunity for all. The implementation of this principle requires among other things an increase in compulsory education in many countries. It also requires greater variety in the school programme so that the needs of children with abilities of different kinds can adequately be met. Provision must also be made for children with physical disabilities. Special schools should be provided for those who are seriously handicapped and teachers should be trained to handle in normal classes those who are slightly handicapped.

The problem of education in countries that are not self-governing was given special consideration by the Group. Leaving political and economic problems aside, it seems evident that colonizing nations have not in the past always exhibited sufficient concern for the education of the peoples whom they have ruled. If attitudes conducive to good social and international understanding are to be developed, governing powers must take steps to work out, with their dependencies, programmes of education which will offer to the people the right kind of opportunity for personal and social development. Such education should be adapted to the stage of progress of the people

concerned, but should also be flexible, so that it can be changed as the people advance. In programmes for non-self-governing peoples, some of the most important steps to be taken are as follows:

- (i) considerable increase in the educational budget;
- (ii) education of teachers drawn from the indigenous population;
- (iii) encouragement of the development of local languages as vehicles of education not only on the lower level, but also on the higher levels of education, in addition to the teaching of the language of the governing country as an instrument of scientific and official communication;
- (iv) organization, in situations that will contribute to social understanding, of classes containing children of the governing and local groups, and encouragement of cultural and educational activities in which people will associate on the basis of mutual interest;
- (v) generous financial aid from the governing countries to promote interchanges of students between the governed countries, the governing countries, and other countries.

DIVISIONS WITHIN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

Where there are sharp divisions between different sections of the people in one community, the difficulties of achieving mutual understanding and respect are very grave. Such divisions are usually reflected within the structure of the educational system, which, therefore, tends to intensify and to prolong social tensions.

In approaching this difficult problem the Group decided to single out for study seven important questions:

- (i) What is the effect upon social understanding of separating adolescents into distinct types of schools according to their varying aptitudes, their parents' social status, and the general vocational direction that they are taking?
- (ii) What is the effect of providing separate institutions for the training of nursery school teachers, primary school teachers, secondary school teachers, and teachers for various branches of education?
- (iii) Is it wise to make a sharp division between institutions which prepare teachers and those which prepare people for the other learned professions?
- (iv) Is the segregation of different racial groups living in one locality into different school systems advisable?
- (v) What is gained by maintaining separate educational systems for particular religious groups?

(vi) Should privileged social classes be allowed to retain an almost exclusive monopoly of important groups of schools?

(vii) Should growing boys and girls be educated in different institutions?

Faced with these complex problems, the Group recognized that since conditions vary widely from country to country, since different communities have reached different stages of social and educational development and since many factors other than that of social understanding are involved in making practical decisions, it would not be feasible to try to make detailed and specific recommendations. It was decided that the Group should attempt to reach agreement upon general principles, which should be regarded both as ideals to be worked towards and as standards by which administrative policies and educational progress may be judged.

It was agreed that some of the divisions outlined above tend to retard the growth of social understanding by making it difficult for people from different sections of a community to know each other personally, and that they inhibit the development of an appreciation not only of the fundamental common humanity of people who differ in race, creed and profession, but also of the great value of such differences in contributing to the variety and richness of social life.

In particular, the following conclusions were reached: (a) that some kind of unified system of secondary education, such as that provided by comprehensive schools, would seem to be preferable to a system composed of distinct types of school; (b) that students who intend to enter different branches of the teaching profession should be given some part at least of their professional education in the same institution; (c) that a fairly close relationship should be developed between the teacher training colleges and the universities, and between university faculties of education and other faculties; (d) that children of different racial groups living in the same locality should share the same schools; (e) that it would seem desirable for young people of different religions living in the same community to attend the same schools; (f) that where "private" schools possess recognized educational advantages, such schools should be made available to all sections of the community; (g) that co-education is desirable, and is not incompatible with the provision, at certain stages of development, of suitable modifications in the curriculum for boys and girls respectively.

It is necessary to emphasize the fact that the only criterion used as the basis of agreement was whether or not a given educational practice was likely to help or hinder the development of social under-

standing. Using that criterion, the Group reached agreement in all cases and, except regarding the first and the last recommendation, such agreement was unanimous.

The Group does not recommend that sudden changes should be introduced when a community is unprepared; nevertheless, its recommendations indicate a set of goals towards which we should constantly strive in our quest for mutual respect and understanding.

THE STATUS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The teacher's contribution to social understanding will necessarily be affected by the influence which the teaching profession in general exercises in society. In a community where teachers are highly esteemed, respected and admired, there is every reason to believe that, should they set out to promote social understanding within that community, their efforts would be relatively successful. It is, therefore, important to consider the factors which determine the general public's estimation of the worth of teachers, and to suggest the ways in which teachers may grow in self-esteem and continue to earn an ever-increasing recognition from their fellow citizens.

The profession will be highly rated if it is composed of persons who are of fine character, who are thoroughly trained and highly qualified; the status of the profession will always be low while it includes men and women who are lacking in any of these qualities. The community will judge the profession by the behaviour and skill of its members. The community may also be tempted to accept the teacher at his own valuation, and it is suggested that teacher-training institutions can raise the status of the profession by impressing on their students the high social value of the service which they will render society. It is also considered that the status and influence of teachers will rise if they are prepared to take their places as ordinary citizens and to participate fully in community life. Their success, their popularity, and their co-operation will enhance the good name of the profession. Under certain conditions, their ability to make such contributions will depend on their economic status. Low salaries and other material disabilities may deter them from entering fully into civic life, and may lead teachers to rate themselves and their vocation too low. The dignity and prestige of the profession are determined then, partly by the teachers themselves, partly by the economic valuation which governments place on education, and partly by the opinions of parents and children, both of whom have had personal association, for better or for worse, with teachers in and out of schools.

There are certain aspects of the composition of the profession which are especially relevant to social understanding. If teachers enter the profession saturated with social, religious, economic or racial prejudices, their training will be difficult and their influence for good rather doubtful. We believe that, on the whole and in many countries, teachers are not recruited from social groups which are governed by powerful or blinding prejudices. Therefore, their training for social understanding should be comparatively straightforward. It is conceivable that, if more teachers were drawn from the unprivileged groups in any community, they would have a special sympathy for the children of such groups. It should be stated, however, that such sympathy is by no means absent at present, and that the sense of being under-privileged could constitute a grievance which would foster an attitude prejudicial to social understanding. Ideally, no doubt, it would be desirable for teachers to be drawn from all the groups and classes which make up any community. Similarly, it is desirable that the profession should contain men and women, in more or less equal numbers, so that boys and girls come under the influence of both men and women during their education.

The status of the profession will also be improved if it is unified by a common purpose and is not hampered by misunderstandings within its own ranks. There are various methods of producing homogeneity within the profession, some of which have been implied in preceding paragraphs. Extreme differences in the treatment of various groups of teachers as to training, qualifications, salaries and conditions of work will surely prevent professional cohesion and so limit the value of the contributions to be made by teachers. The status of the profession will certainly be on a higher level when teacher-training institutions have the prestige which the University enjoys; it may be that, as already suggested in some countries, this effect could be obtained by a closer relationship between the teachers' colleges and the universities.

The shortage of teachers is a problem common to most countries today, and it is conceivable that this may adversely affect the status of the profession. Faced with this personnel crisis, educational authorities may be obliged to accept less well qualified persons as teachers and to curtail the period of training. Not only may this policy lower the standards of the profession, but it may also cause a division amongst teachers themselves. On the other hand, the English Emergency Training Scheme suggests that the present crisis has enabled the profession to recruit men and women who, although many of them lack the conventional qualifications, have good personal qualities,

and social backgrounds and experiences which are extremely varied. Such teachers should be able to make a significant contribution to social understanding. It is pointed out, however, that in colonial countries it is not easy to tap other sources of supply, and in such areas a shortage of teachers produces a very grave situation indeed.

THE RECRUITMENT OF TEACHERS

After a long discussion on the problem of recruiting for the teaching profession those who are likely to contribute to social understanding, the following recommendations were made:

(i) that in general salaries need to be increased substantially; that adequate pensions should be provided; that unusual merit should be recognized by additional remuneration. Teachers' organizations are urged to devise a method of identifying such ability;

(ii) that the minimum requirement for certification should be an adequate secondary education and professional training, and that improved standards be demanded as conditions permit;

(iii) that in many countries, in order to provide teachers with satisfactory working conditions, school buildings and equipment should be improved and the number of pupils in the classes reduced;

(iv) that in almost all countries living conditions for teachers, particularly in rural areas, should be improved so that they are not below those of other professional workers;

(v) that in all countries greater opportunities for promotion should be provided and that increased responsibilities should be financially rewarded;

(vi) that teachers should be accorded the right to live their own lives without restrictions which are not imposed on other members of society;

(vii) that teachers, especially in secondary schools, should use their influence to attract promising students into the profession;

(viii) that careful studies should be made of the admission requirements of training institutions, and also of the retention in the schools of teachers who prove unsatisfactory. Central administrative authorities, training institutions and teachers' organizations are urged to co-operate in this task.

Appendix: A DEFINITION OF SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING

I. GENERAL APPROACH

The problem of defining "social understanding" was considered from

two points of view: (A) that of the individual member of society, and (B) that of the society itself.

It is emphasized that the word "understanding", as used here, connotes on the one hand knowledge of certain facts, and on the other, appreciation of their significance as motives of personal behaviour.

It is recognized that the breadth and the depth of social understanding will vary with the age and abilities of the individual and with the complexity of the social group.

A. INDIVIDUAL APPROACH ✓

1. From the point of view of the *individual* it is assumed (i) that throughout his life he becomes a member of successively widening circles of social life, for example, the family group, the neighbourhood group, the school group, political associations, the nation, and other groups; (ii) that at every stage his life is in many ways dependent upon the group or groups of which he is a member, and that the lives of others are in many ways dependent upon him.

2. It follows that from the point of view of the individual, the term "social understanding" should connote the development within each individual of (i) *an appreciation of and a sympathetic attitude* towards the interdependence of person and person, at each level of development—in other words the individual should *feel* in relation to other people a sense of dependence, of loyalty, and of unity; (ii) a *knowledge* of the ways in which his life is dependent on that of various social groups of which he is a member and of the ways in which, conversely, group life depends upon the response or contributions of individual members. In other words he needs a knowledge of the groups in which he lives.

B. SOCIAL APPROACH ✓

1. From the point of view of the social group it is assumed (i) that each group has its own form or pattern of life, expressed through its customs, laws, standards of behaviour, institutions, values, religious beliefs; (ii) that each group transmits the essence of its pattern of social life to its individual members; (iii) that groups tend to be expansive, in the sense that they apply their standards to other groups, and tend to make exclusive claims upon the members of those groups which creates a conflict of values.

2. Thus the term "social understanding" should connote the development within the groups themselves as well as in individual members (i) of *an appreciation of and a sympathetic attitude* towards



the fact of the interdependence of group and group; and (ii) of a knowledge of the ways in which each group depends upon other groups, whether smaller or larger in area than itself. In other words a knowledge of group rights and group duties is needed.

II. APPLICATIONS OF THE GENERAL THEORY IN DIFFERENT AREAS OF SOCIAL LIFE

There are roughly three different levels at which social understanding is necessary: (A) that of the individual in his relationships with other individuals and with diverse social groups. (B) that of the social group in its relationships with other social groups operating within wider organized groups such as nations, international societies, and empires, and (C) that of the more independent groups in their relationships with other independent groups.

A. At the individual level:

I. KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED:

Facts about human behaviour within such groups or communities as:

- (i) The family, the clan, the tribe, etc.*
- (ii) the play group
- (iii) the school class and the school
- (iv) the neighbourhood—in respect of other people, of property, etc.
- (v) the religious group
- (vi) the group as determined by economic status
- (vii) clubs and voluntary associations
- (viii) the local area of administration—city units, for example, Post Office, Police, transport authorities
- (ix) the Nation
- (x) Civilizations: regional associations, language groups
- (xi) international associations

✓2. ATTITUDES TO BE DEVELOPED:

As each group within which the individual lives some part of his

* It was pointed out that the "family" in the western sense does not always convey what is meant by family, tribe or caste in various other parts of the world. These family groups sometimes have a strong cohesive influence which can hinder the extension of social understanding. In some religions, also, the status of men and women varies so greatly that they must be considered as separate groups.

life becomes more complex, the following attitudes need to be progressively developed:

- (i) sympathetic consideration for the needs of other members of the group;
- (ii) readiness to co-operate with other members, and to accept the responsibilities of leadership, or to follow the lead of another, as circumstances and the group may require;
- (iii) sincerity in relationships with others;
- (iv) conscious objectivity in seeking to understand oneself and others;
- (v) willingness to understand and respect the aims and ideals of others, up to the point where others may refuse to abide by the generally accepted rules of tolerance and freedom.

B.) At the level of groups working within larger organized groups:

I. KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED:

- (i) the purposes for which each group is organized;
- (ii) the limitations imposed on each group because of its interdependence with other groups, because it exists within the framework of a larger group, and because its members are often at one and the same time members of several groups existing for different purposes;
- (iii) the institutions which exist in order to adjust the varying claims of different groups;
- (iv) the history of the major social groups, and the evolution of their structure and functions.

2. ATTITUDES TO BE DEVELOPED:

These groups need to develop attitudes such as:

- (i) sympathetic consideration for the functions of other groups;
- (ii) willingness to understand and respect the aims and ideals of other groups up to the point where any such groups may refuse to abide by the generally accepted rules of group tolerance and freedom;
- (iii) readiness to appreciate that individual members have loyalties to more than one group, and that these may at times conflict.

C.) At the level of the relatively independent groups (for example, nations, empires and other sovereign states) in relationships with other similar groups:

I. KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED:

- (i) The growth and characteristics of such groups, and the functions and purposes for which they are at present organized;

- (ii) The evolution of modern social and economic life, and the consequent growth of interdependence of such groups;
- (iii) The difficulties in their mutual adjustment due to man's inability to draw them into a wider institutional framework;
- (iv) Present-day attempts to construct institutions (such as UN, Unesco, etc.) to serve as agents of co-ordination and adjustment of the claims of hitherto independent groups;
- (v) Historical approach to the development of man's attempts to create new institutions for group adjustment.

2. ATTITUDES TO BE DEVELOPED:

- (i) Appreciation of the contributions of different cultural and national groups to the enrichment of human life;
- (ii) Sympathetic recognition of the origins of different cultures and appreciative study of their worth, which will not necessarily be proportionate to the size or dominance of the relative groups at any given period of history;
- (iii) Willingness to resolve tensions and clashes of interests and ideals by mutual and peaceful agreement.

III. APPLICATION OF THE GENERAL THEORY IN SITUATIONS IN WHICH SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING IS DIFFICULT TO ACHIEVE

To aid the consideration, later, of social understanding in teacher-education, a study of present-day problems of social understanding should be included. Such problems may be classified as follows:

A. Those existing mainly at the individual level:

The whole psychology of individual development and the social behaviour of individuals is involved here; while this is of fundamental importance to the problems of group tensions, it comes more specifically within the province of Group I of the Seminar.

B. Those problems existing mainly at the level of dependent groups:

- (i) Conflicting claims of the family and other groups (for example, schools, religious groups, political parties) in respect of the education of children;
- (ii) Conflicting values, ideals, manners and activities, of different social and economic classes, whether in the sphere of organized associations such as trade unions, professional associations and political parties, or in the less organized aspects of social life within any community;

- (iii) Conflicting claims of different religions and their group organizations within a community;
- (iv) The presence of conflicting elements in a community or state arising, for instance, from the existence of racial minorities, from varying interests and opportunities in rural and urban areas, from unemployment, or from the clash of loyalties in past, or recent, civil and international crises;
- (v) Conflicting claims of the nation-states and international religious and political organizations on the loyalty of their members;
- (vi) Purely conventional differentiation of privileges, rights, responsibilities, and opportunities between the sexes;
- (vii) The existence, within any community, of underprivileged racial, cultural, or social groups which are denied full educational, vocational, social, and political equality with others;
- (viii) The effects of economic and political crises upon different groups, classes, etc., and even upon the nation itself;
- (ix) The effects of delay in disseminating information, and of bias and prejudice in the sources of information available to the ordinary citizen;
- (x) The inadequacy of the present educational approach to the problems of social understanding. (This, indeed, is implied by the existence and aims of Unesco.)

C. *Those problems existing mainly at the level of the larger and more independent groups:*

These problems were the main concern of Group III, but they could not wholly be ignored by Group II. They include the problems referred to in the preceding sections, but in addition the following were noted:

- (i) Economic struggle or competition between nations
- (ii) Areas which are economically backward
- (iii) Conflicting ideals of life and political philosophies
- (iv) Attitudes and conflicts arising from a sense of domination by, or more or less compelling dependence upon, other nations or peoples.

PREPARING TEACHERS FOR THEIR RÔLE AS POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTORS TO BETTER INTER- NATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

BY
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I. THE EDUCATION OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

It is assumed that prospective teachers, prior to admission into a training institution, will have attended a secondary school where they will have developed at least some understanding and appreciation of the way of life of peoples of other countries. It is also assumed that the training institution will provide a broad general education.

The responsibility of the training institution is a grave one, for the emotions and attitudes of teachers in training are more readily influenced than those of teachers in service.

The Group recommends that as many as possible of the following methods should be put into practice by the training institutions. Their acceptance must naturally depend on particular local circumstances. Not every institution can make use of all of them, but each suggestion has proved successful in practice in some country:

1. At an early stage in the course, the staff should try to learn the attitudes of the students towards other races and cultures in order to determine for each student the extent of training in international understanding which may be needed; Unesco should enquire into the possibility of developing a suitable procedure for this type of enquiry with a view to making it available for all countries.

2. Since personal experience is recognized as the most valuable means of increasing understanding, it is urged that:

(a) staff members should be encouraged, by leave of absence, financial aid, and, by other means, to study and travel in other countries, and that exchange of staff members be arranged as frequently as possible;

(b) encouragement along similar lines should be given to students; inter-school visits and exchanges of students should be arranged where practicable, and acquaintance and friendship should be developed with local persons of other races and creeds.

3. A general programme of instruction should be provided, designed to encourage international understanding, and taught by staff members who are enthusiastic believers in the need for better international understanding. Frequently, their enthusiasm will need to be aroused by others on the staff, and it is hoped that heads of institutions will accept this responsibility.

4. International understanding can be developed through the following courses, which seem to be common to most teacher training institutions: (a) Psychology; (b) History of Education, Comparative Education; (c) Social Studies (History, Geography, Sociology, Ethics, etc.). Here the method of approach is important. The entire world cannot be covered in any one course. If some units are developed in the right way, students can follow the same method in subsequent study; (d) Science. The contributions made by persons of other nations can be indicated, showing that science is international; (e) Art and Music. The contributions of other races, nations or people should also be stressed here.

5. Audio and visual aids should be used freely where possible.

Unesco is urged to: (a) accelerate its study of this question; (b) implement the resolution of the General Conference of Unesco in 1947 which sought to bring about a free interchange, among member nations, of educational films, and particularly of radio transmitters, on a non-profit basis.

6. Extra-curricular activities. Student assemblies and Current Events Clubs can make a considerable contribution if wisely led. Public addresses are also helpful if the speakers are carefully selected.

Students need wider experience in the democratic way of life through living it—not merely through reading about it or studying it. They should be encouraged to manage their own clubs and associations and, wherever possible, to take an active part in the life of the community. Their own associations should not be controlled by staff decisions. It is better for students to make some mistakes than to be right only because outside control has been exercised. Staff advisers should, however, be available for consultation.

7. Foreign students should be tactfully discouraged from living in groups of their own and should mingle freely with the local population.

8. One specific course or unit should be provided under Recommendation (4). It should deal with the UN and the Specialized Agencies. For this course, at least two publications are needed: a simple textbook, amply illustrated with diagrams and graphs for students' use; a more complete and detailed handbook for instructors.

In view of the necessity for developing initial interest, Unesco is urged to forward copies of such publications to every teacher-training institution in its Member States, and, in addition, to maintain a permanent mailing list to which future material may be sent as it becomes available.

2. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

The accounts of conditions in their own countries, given by teachers from many parts of the world who met together at the Seminar, showed that great efforts were being made in numerous countries to improve teacher training. But it seems that the younger generation finds at present little or none of the moral, civic, aesthetic or social teaching which only the schools can provide today. The schools cannot contribute efficiently to international understanding unless the teachers are specially prepared for this task. It is out of the question to wait for new generations of teachers to do what must be undertaken by all practising teachers. Owing to the war and to the demand for teachers, many countries have had to entrust

education more and more to people who lack regular training. It is obvious that the need for plans to improve present-day teaching is grave and urgent.

There is need not only for improvement in the academic sense, but also for reforms which will give the pupils a new social outlook.

Reference was constantly made during the Seminar, in lectures, discussions and film showings, to one of the first obstacles to international understanding—the tensions existing between different groups. The progress made in educational psychology enables us to state that teaching for international understanding would be seriously jeopardized by the following attitudes, all of which, unfortunately, are difficult for even the most experienced teachers to avoid.

(i) The "specialist" outlook, a one-sided attitude, over-emphasizing the children's academic progress and the importance of culture in general. (This is encountered mainly in secondary schools).

(ii) An unco-operative attitude between different categories of teachers, and unsatisfactory relations between the governing bodies and the inspectorate.

(iii) The feelings of frustration and sometimes of fear which teachers who find it professionally unwise to express certain political or religious views may experience.

(iv) An attitude of resentment caused by low salaries.

(v) An attitude of intellectual jingoism and a conviction of the superiority of their own culture which many teachers whose training has been too narrow and limited may exhibit.

Reaffirming an idea expressed in the report of the 1947 Unesco Seminar, we wish to say that the first effort towards promoting international understanding should be to help practising teachers not only to increase their knowledge but also to make themselves better citizens of the world.

Exchanges of teachers between countries are extremely important. Too often they are limited to foreign language masters of secondary schools, but teachers of all subjects and disciplines and particularly of technology should be included.

Teachers themselves should take the initiative in reviving hospitality in many countries where its ancient obligations have been forgotten.

Seminars of limited duration organized in different countries on a regional basis, with the participation of foreign teachers, either residing in the country or specially invited, are strongly recommended as a means whereby teachers can be helped to develop international understanding. The seminars should always group together teachers

of different disciplines and levels of education and special meetings should be arranged for them.

3. EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING IN THE SCHOOLS

Besides discussing the preparation of teachers in training and in service as potential contributors to international understanding, Group III considered, very briefly, some ways and means of introducing the subject in the schools themselves. Unesco publication No. 185 * *Teaching about the United Nations: Some Suggestions and Recommendations* was used for reference and the Group found it was able to base most of its conclusions on it.

It was agreed that one of the chief aims of education today should be to prepare children and young people in schools throughout the world to become intelligent members of a world society, richly varied by nature and tradition, but united in a movement towards world peace and a fuller life for every human being. The first purpose of the school is to provide a good general education. But, to be effective, this education must not only provide information and teach the pupil how to acquire it; it should, above all, train his mind, and, as far as possible, foster certain invaluable mental abilities. These are aptly defined in the *Harvard Report on General Education* as:

- (i) To think effectively, which implies that the student should be capable of thinking logically, of avoiding mistaking opinion for knowledge, and of realizing what is known and what is not known.
- (ii) To communicate thought clearly and cogently.
- (iii) To make sound judgments.
- (iv) To discriminate between values, and to express them in actions, feelings and thoughts.

The Group recognized that if this kind of education were widely put into practice, it would undoubtedly develop international understanding. But the members felt that, at this time, there was a necessity for some more explicit instruction. In the first place, every pupil should be given some information about the structure and purposes of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies, and the instruction should be adapted, in form and method, to the age, ability and interests of the children taught.

* This pamphlet has been revised and copies are now available under the title: *Towards World Understanding: Some Suggestions on Teaching about the United Nations and Its Specialized Agencies*. Unesco Publication No. 242.

It was recommended that indirect or incidental methods should be used with the younger pupils. Stories, songs, plays, pictures and films (where possible) to illustrate the work of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies should be introduced into lessons in literature, languages and the social studies. This would help to develop "those qualities of citizenship which provide the foundation upon which international government must be based if it is to succeed". When pupils reach the adolescent stage and are able to grasp clearly the ideas and concepts involved in the work of the United Nations, more direct methods can naturally be used.

In considering the question of school instruction about other lands and peoples, the Group noted that direct teaching often over-emphasizes rather than explains differences. This was apparently caused by the need for simplification and a tendency to focus attention—for interest's sake—on the strange and exotic. Distortion also resulted from the use of poor or out-of-date textbooks.

Every possible opportunity should be given to children and young people to allow them to make contacts—direct or indirect—with children in other countries or, locally, in other national groups, in order to develop interest and sympathy amongst them. A study of the arts, music, and literature of other countries awakens interest and provides a good background to international understanding.

It was recommended that teachers should encourage out-of-class activities to help develop world-mindedness and that, where possible, they should seek the co-operation of other persons or agencies in the Community.

Appendix. PROPOSALS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES

During the Sethinar, a sub-committee of Group II discussed the question of bibliographies of educational publications and their deficiencies, and made some proposals for their improvement.

Some of the textbooks most widely used in the normal schools or teacher-training institutions of England, France, Luxemburg, the United States and Norway were examined, and the sub-committee decided that:

(i) Bibliographies of educational publications are almost always limited to works published in the country in question or in the language of that country.

(ii) Even when new editions appear, the bibliographies usually

refer to old or out-of-date editions. This failing is often to be found in lists printed before 1939, and has been intensified by war conditions. To cite only one example: in the case of a textbook containing a particularly full bibliography, out of 154 books listed, 111 appeared in the country publishing the textbook and 26 in a neighbouring country. There were only 18 references to educational publications of world-wide repute which had been printed elsewhere. Moreover, while the textbook under consideration was published in 1947, only 9 of the 154 works listed in the bibliography were printed later than 1938.

The Group felt that inaccurate or incomplete bibliographies could seriously retard the training of teachers and could have an adverse effect on international understanding. The following proposals were therefore presented:

(i) That, calling on the National Commissions of Unesco, and on competent public and private organizations, Unesco collect information enabling it to publish an analytical bibliography of the principal works, textbooks and periodicals dealing with education and with educational problems. An annual supplement should be published to keep the bibliography up to date.

(ii) That Unesco encourage the translation, into as many languages as possible, of outstanding works recommended by the national commissions or by competent national organizations.

(iii) That Unesco use every means in its power to ensure the reprinting and circulation of works now out of print but of recognized value.

(iv) That Unesco make fresh efforts to bring about a solution to the financial difficulties obstructing the free flow of ideas. In this connection, the Group is especially interested in the project of book coupons*, which it would like to see extended, and also in the exchange of copyrights,** which it wishes to recommend.

* *The Unesco Book Coupon*. Unesco Publication No 236.

** *Copyright Bulletin*. A Quarterly Publication of Unesco.

APPENDIX

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